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**COEFFICIENT MULTIPLIERS OF  $H^p$  AND  $B^p$  SPACES**

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# COEFFICIENT MULTIPLIERS OF $H^p$ AND $B^p$ SPACES

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**This paper describes the coefficient multipliers of  $H^p(0 < p < 1)$  into  $\ell^q(p \leq q \leq \infty)$  and into  $H^q(1 \leq q \leq \infty)$ . These multipliers are found to coincide with those of the larger space  $B^p$  into  $\ell^q(1 \leq q \leq \infty)$  and into  $H^q(1 \leq q \leq \infty)$ . The multipliers of  $H^p$  and  $B^p$  into  $B^q(0 < p < 1, 0 < q < 1)$  are also characterized.**

A function  $f$  analytic in the unit disk is said to be of class  $H^p(0 < p < \infty)$  if

$$M_p(r, f) = \left\{ \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(re^{i\theta})|^p d\theta \right\}^{1/p}$$

remains bounded as  $r \rightarrow 1$ .  $H^\infty$  is the space of all bounded analytic functions. It was recently found ([2], [4]) that if  $p < 1$ , various properties of  $H^p$  extend to the larger space  $B^p$  consisting of all analytic functions  $f$  such that

$$\int_0^1 (1-r)^{1/p-2} M_1(r, f) dr < \infty.$$

Hardy and Littlewood [8] showed that  $H^p \subset B^p$ .

A complex sequence  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is called a *multiplier* of a sequence space  $A$  into a sequence space  $B$  if  $\{\lambda_n a_n\} \in B$  whenever  $\{a_n\} \in A$ . A space of analytic functions can be regarded as a sequence space by identifying each function with its sequence of Taylor coefficients. In [4] we identified the multipliers of  $H^p$  and  $B^p(0 < p < 1)$  into  $\ell^1$ . We have also shown ([2], Th. 5) that the sequence  $\{n^{1/q-1/p}\}$  multiplies  $B^p$  into  $B^q$ . We now extend these results by describing the multipliers of  $H^p(0 < p < 1)$  into  $\ell^q(p \leq q \leq \infty)$ , of  $B^p$  into  $\ell^q(1 \leq q \leq \infty)$ , and of both  $H^p$  and  $B^p$  into  $B^q(0 < q < 1)$ . We also extend a theorem of Hardy and Littlewood (whose proof was never published) by characterizing the multipliers of  $H^p$  and  $B^p$  into  $H^q(0 < p < 1 \leq q \leq \infty)$ . In almost every case considered, the multipliers of  $B^p$  into a given space are the same as those of  $H^p$ .

2. Multipliers into  $\ell^q$ . We begin by describing the multipliers of  $H^p$  and  $B^p$  into  $\ell^\infty$ , the space of bounded complex sequences.

**THEOREM 1.** *For  $0 < p \leq 1$ , a sequence  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $H^p$  into  $\ell^\infty$  if and only if*

$$(1) \quad \lambda_n = O(n^{1-1/p}).$$

For  $p < 1$ , the condition (1) also characterizes the multipliers of  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{C}^\infty$ .

*Proof.* If  $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$  is in  $B^p$ , then by Theorem 4 of [2],

$$(2) \quad a_n = o(n^{1/p-1}).$$

If  $f \in H^1$ , then  $a_n \rightarrow 0$  by the Riemann-Lebesgue lemma. This proves the sufficiency of (1). Conversely, suppose  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $H^p$  into  $\mathcal{C}^\infty$ . Then the closed linear operator

$$A: f \longrightarrow \{\lambda_n a_n\}$$

maps  $H^p$  into  $\mathcal{C}^\infty$ . Thus  $A$  is bounded, by the closed graph theorem (which applies since  $H^p$  is a complete metric space with translation invariant metric; see [1], Chapter 2). In other words,

$$(3) \quad \sup_n |\lambda_n a_n| = \|A(f)\| \leq K \|f\|.$$

Now let

$$g(z) = (1 - z)^{-1-1/p} = \sum b_n z^n,$$

where  $b^n \sim Bn^{1/p}$ ; and choose  $f(z) = g(rz)$  for fixed  $r < 1$ . Then by (3)

$$|\lambda_n| n^{1/p} r^n \leq C(1 - r)^{-1}.$$

The choice  $r = 1 - 1/n$  now gives (1). Note that  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $H^p$  or  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{C}^\infty$  if and only if it multiplies into  $c_0$  (the sequences tending to zero).

As a corollary we may show that the estimate (2) is best possible in a rather strong sense. For functions of class  $H^p$ , this estimate is due to Hardy and Littlewood [8]. Evgrafov [6] later showed that if  $\{\delta_n\}$  tends monotonically to zero, then there is an  $f \in H^p$  for which  $a_n \neq O(\delta_n n^{1/p-1})$ . A simpler proof was given in [5]. The result may be reformulated: if  $a_n = O(d_n)$  for all  $f \in H^p$ , then  $d_n n^{1-1/p}$  cannot tend monotonically to zero. We can now sharpen this statement as follows.

**COROLLARY.** *If  $\{d_n\}$  is any sequence of positive numbers such that  $a_n = O(d_n)$  for every function  $\sum a_n z^n$  in  $H^p$ , then there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that*

$$d_n n^{1-1/p} \geq \varepsilon > 0, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

*Proof.* If  $a_n = O(d_n)$  for every  $f \in H^p$ , then  $\{1/d_n\}$  multiplies  $H^p$  into  $\mathcal{C}^\infty$ . Thus  $1/d_n = O(n^{1-1/p})$ , as claimed.

We now turn to the multipliers of  $H^p$  and  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q(q < \infty)$ , the space of sequences  $\{c_n\}$  with  $\sum |c_n|^q < \infty$ . The following theorem generalizes a previously known result [4] for  $\mathcal{L}^1$ .

**THEOREM 2.** *Suppose  $0 < p < 1$ .*

(i) *A complex sequence  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $H^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q(p \leq q < \infty)$  if and only if*

$$(4) \quad \sum_{n=1}^N n^{q/p} |\lambda_n|^q = O(N^q).$$

(ii) *If  $1 \leq q < \infty$ ,  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q$  if and only if (4) holds.*

(iii) *If  $q < p$ , the condition (4) does not imply that  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $H^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q$ ; nor does it imply that  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q$  if  $q < 1$ .*

*Proof.* (i) A summation by parts (see [4]) shows that (4) is equivalent to the condition

$$(5) \quad \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} |\lambda_n|^q = O(N^{q(1-1/p)}).$$

Assume without loss of generality that  $\lambda_n \geq 0$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n^q = 1$ . Let  $s_1 = 0$  and

$$s_n = 1 - \left\{ \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \lambda_k^q \right\}^{1/\beta}, \quad n = 2, 3, \dots,$$

where  $\beta = q(1/p - 1)$ . Note that  $s_n$  increases to 1 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . By a theorem of Hardy and Littlewood ([8], p. 412),  $f \in H^p(0 < p < 1)$  implies

$$(6) \quad \int_0^1 (1-r)^{\beta-1} M_1^q(r, f) dr < \infty, \quad p \leq q < \infty.$$

Thus if  $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$  is in  $H^p$  and  $\{\lambda_n\}$  satisfies (4) with  $p \leq q < \infty$ , it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \infty &> \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{s_n}^{s_{n+1}} (1-r)^{\beta-1} M_1^q(r, f) dr \\ &\geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|^q \int_{s_n}^{s_{n+1}} (1-r)^{\beta-1} r^{nq} dr \\ &\geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|^q (s_n)^{nq} \int_{s_n}^{s_{n+1}} (1-r)^{\beta-1} dr \\ &= \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|^q (s_n)^{nq} \{(1-s_n)^\beta - (1-s_{n+1})^\beta\} \\ &= \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|^q (s_n)^{nq} \lambda_n^q, \end{aligned}$$

by the definition of  $s_n$ . But by (5),

$$\left\{ \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \lambda_k^q \right\}^{1/\beta} \leq \frac{C}{n},$$

which shows, by the definition of  $s_n$ , that

$$(s_n)^{nq} \geq (1 - C/n)^{nq} \longrightarrow e^{-Cq} > 0.$$

Since these factors  $(s_n)^{nq}$  are eventually bounded away from zero, the preceding estimates show that  $\sum |a_n|^q \lambda_n^q < \infty$ . In other words,  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $H^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q$  if it satisfies the condition (4).

(ii) The above proof shows that  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^1$  under the condition (4) with  $q = 1$ . (This was also shown in [4].) The more general statement (ii) now follows by showing that if  $\{\lambda_n\}$  satisfies (4), then the sequence  $\{\mu_n\}$  defined by

$$\mu_n = |\lambda_n|^q n^{(1/p-1)(q-1)}$$

satisfies (4) with  $q = 1$ . Hence  $\{\mu_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^1$ , and in view of (2),  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q$ . Alternatively, it can be observed that  $f \in B^p$  implies (6) for  $1 \leq q < \infty$ , so that the foregoing proof applies directly. Indeed, if  $f \in B^p$ , then (as shown in [2], proof of Theorem 3)

$$M_1(r, f) = O((1 - r)^{1-1/p});$$

hence, if  $1 \leq q < \infty$ ,

$$\int_0^1 (1 - r)^{q(1/p-1)-1} M_1^q(r, f) dr \leq C \int_0^1 (1 - r)^{1/p-2} M_1(r, f) dr < \infty.$$

(iii) That (4) does not imply  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $H^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q$  ( $q < p$ ) or  $B^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q$  ( $q < 1$ ), follows from the fact [4] that the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{q(1-1/p)-1} |a_n|^q$$

may diverge if  $f \in H^p$  and  $q < p$ , or if  $f \in B^p$  and  $q < 1$ .

To show the necessity of (4), we again appeal to the closed graph theorem. If  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $H^p$  into  $\mathcal{L}^q$  ( $0 < p < \infty$ ,  $0 < q < \infty$ ), then

$$A: f \longrightarrow \{\lambda_n a_n\}$$

is a bounded operator:

$$\left\{ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |\lambda_n a_n|^q \right\}^{1/q} \leq C \|f\|, \quad f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n \in H^p.$$

Choosing  $f(z) = g(rz)$  as in the proof of Theorem 1, we now find

$$\left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{q/p} |\lambda_n|^q r^{nq} \right\}^{1/q} \leq C(1 - r)^{-1};$$

and (4) follows after terminating this series at  $n = N$  and setting  $r = 1 - 1/N$ . Note that the argument shows (4) is necessary even if  $p \geq 1$  or  $q < p$ .

**COROLLARY 1.** *If  $\{n_k\}$  is a lacunary sequence of positive integers ( $n_{k+1}/n_k \geq Q > 1$ ), and if  $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$  is in  $H^p$  ( $0 < p < 1$ ), then*

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} n_k^{q(1-1/p)} |a_{n_k}|^q < \infty, \quad p \leq q < \infty.$$

**COROLLARY 2.** *If  $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$  is in  $H^p$  ( $0 < p < 1$ ), then  $\sum n^{p-2} |a_n|^p < \infty$ .*

The first corollary extends a theorem of Paley [13] that  $f \in H^1$  implies  $\{a_{n_k}\} \in \ell^2$ . The second is a theorem of Hardy and Littlewood [7]. It is interesting to ask whether the converse to Corollary 1 (with  $q = p$ ) is valid. That is, if  $\{c_k\}$  is a given sequence for which

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} n_k^{p-1} |c_k|^p < \infty,$$

then is there a function  $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$  in  $H^p$  with  $a_{n_k} = c_k$ ? We do not know the answer.

Hardy and Littlewood [9] also proved that  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $H^1$  into  $H^2$  (alias  $\ell^2$ ) if (and only if)

$$\sum_{n=1}^N n^2 |\lambda_n|^2 = O(N^2).$$

From this it is easy to conclude that (4) characterizes the multipliers of  $H^1$  into  $\ell^q$ ,  $2 \leq q < \infty$ . Indeed, let  $\{\lambda_n\}$  satisfy (4) and let  $\mu_n = |\lambda_n|^{q/2}$ . Then, by the Hardy-Littlewood theorem,  $\{\mu_n\}$  multiplies  $H^1$  into  $\ell^2$  (see [3], p. 253). Hence  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $H^1$  into  $\ell^q$ . (See also Hedlund [12].)

On the other hand, the condition (4) is *not* sufficient if  $p = 1$  and  $q < 2$ . This may be seen by choosing a lacunary series

$$f(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k z^{n_k}, \quad n_{k+1}/n_k \geq Q > 1,$$

with  $\sum |c_k|^2 < \infty$  but  $\sum |c_k|^q = \infty$  for all  $q < 2$ . The sequence  $\{\lambda_n\}$  with  $\lambda_n = 1$  if  $n = n_k$  and  $\lambda_n = 0$  otherwise then satisfies (4) but does not multiply  $H^1$  into  $\ell^q$ ,  $q < 2$ .

**3. Multipliers into  $B^q$ .** The following theorem may be regarded

as a generalization of our previous result ([2], Th. 5) that if  $f \in B^p$ , then its fractional integral of order  $(1/p - 1/q)$  is in  $B^q$ . (A fractional integral of negative order is understood to be a fractional derivative.)

**THEOREM 3.** *Suppose  $0 < p < 1$  and  $0 < q < 1$ . Let  $\nu$  be the positive integer such that  $(\nu + 1)^{-1} \leq p < \nu^{-1}$ . Then  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $H^p$  or  $B^p$  into  $B^q$  if and only if  $g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_n z^n$  has the property*

$$(7) \quad M_1(r, g^{(\nu)}) = O((1 - r)^{1/p - 1/q - \nu}).$$

*Proof.* Let  $\{\lambda_n\}$  satisfy (7), let  $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$  be in  $B^p$ , and let  $h(z) = \sum \lambda_n a_n z^n$ . Then

$$h(\rho z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\rho e^{it}) g(\rho z e^{-it}) dt, \quad 0 < \rho < 1.$$

Differentiation with respect to  $z$  gives

$$(8) \quad \rho^\nu h^{(\nu)}(\rho z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\rho e^{it}) g^{(\nu)}(\rho z e^{-it}) e^{-i\nu t} dt.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^\nu M_1(r\rho, h^{(\nu)}) &\leq M_1(r, g^{(\nu)}) M_1(\rho, f) \\ &\leq C(1 - r)^{1/p - 1/q - \nu} M_1(\rho, f), \end{aligned}$$

where  $r = |z|$ . Taking  $r = \rho$ , we now see that  $f \in B^p$  implies  $h^{(\nu)} \in B^q$ ,  $1/s = 1/q + \nu$ . Thus  $h \in B^q$ , by Theorem 5 of [2].

Conversely, let  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiply  $H^p$  into  $B^q$ . Then by the closed graph theorem,

$$A: \sum a_n z^n \longrightarrow \sum \lambda_n a_n z^n$$

is a bounded operator from  $H^p$  to  $B^q$ . If  $(\nu + 1)^{-1} \leq p < \nu^{-1}$ , let

$$f(z) = \nu! z^\nu (1 - z)^{-\nu-1} = \sum_{n=\nu}^{\infty} a_n z^n,$$

where  $a_n = n!/(n - \nu)!$ , and observe that

$$(9) \quad h(z) = \sum_{n=\nu}^{\infty} \lambda_n a_n z^n = z^\nu g^{(\nu)}(z).$$

Let  $f_r(z) = f(rz)$  and  $h_r(z) = h(rz)$ . Since  $A$  is bounded, there is a constant  $C$  independent of  $r$  such that

$$\|h_r\|_{B^q} = \|A(f_r)\| \leq C \|f_r\|_{H^p}.$$

In other words,

$$\int_0^1 (1-t)^{1/q-2} M_1(tr, h) dt \leq CM_p(r, f) = O((1-r)^{1/p-\nu-1}).$$

It follows that

$$M_1(r^2, h) \int_r^1 (1-t)^{1/q-2} dt = O((1-r)^{1/p-\nu-1}),$$

or

$$M_1(r^2, h) = O((1-r)^{1/p-1/q-\nu}).$$

But in view of (9), this proves (7).

COROLLARY. *The sequence  $\{\lambda_n\}$  multiplies  $B^p$  into  $B^p$  if and only if*

$$(10) \quad M_1(r, g') = O\left(\frac{1}{1-r}\right).$$

*Proof.* If  $p = q$ , the condition (10) is equivalent to (7). (see [8], p. 435.) This corollary is essentially the same as a result of Zygmund ([14], Th. 1), who found the multipliers of the Lipschitz space  $A_\alpha$  or  $\lambda_\alpha$  into itself. Because of the duality between these spaces and  $B^p$  (see [2], §§ 3, 4), the multipliers from  $A_\alpha$  to  $A_\alpha$  and from  $\lambda_\alpha$  to  $\lambda_\alpha$  ( $0 < \alpha < 1$ ) are the same as those from  $B^p$  to  $B^p$ . Similar remarks apply to the spaces  $A_*$  and  $\lambda_*$ , also considered in [14].

4. **Multipliers into  $H^q$ .** By combining Theorem 3 with the simple fact that  $f' \in B^{1/2}$  implies  $f \in H^1$ , it is possible to obtain a sufficient condition for  $\{\lambda_n\}$  to multiply  $H^p$  into  $H^q$ ,  $0 < p < 1 \leq q \leq \infty$ . However, this method leads to a sharp result only in the case  $q = 1$ . The following theorem provides the complete answer.

THEOREM 4. *Suppose  $0 < p < 1 \leq q \leq \infty$ , and let  $(\nu + 1)^{-1} \leq p < \nu^{-1}$ ,  $\nu = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $H^p$  or  $B^p$  into  $H^q$  if and only if  $g(z) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \lambda_n z^n$  has the property*

$$(11) \quad M_q(r, g^{(\nu+1)}) = O((1-r)^{1/p-\nu-2}).$$

Hardy and Littlewood ([9], [10]) stated in different terminology that (11) implies  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $H^p$  into  $H^q$  ( $0 < p < 1 \leq q < \infty$ ), but they never published the proof. Our proof will make use of the following lemma.

LEMMA. *Let  $f$  be analytic in the unit disk, and suppose*



$$\int_0^1 (1-r)^\alpha M_q(r, f') dr < \infty ,$$

where  $\alpha > 0$  and  $1 \leq q \leq \infty$ . Then

$$\int_0^1 (1-r)^{\alpha-1} M_q(r, f) dr < \infty .$$

*Proof of Lemma.* Without loss of generality, assume  $f(0) = 0$ , so that

$$f(re^{i\theta}) = \int_0^r f'(se^{i\theta}) e^{i\theta} ds .$$

The continuous form of Minkowski's inequality now gives

$$(12) \quad M_q(r, f) \leq \int_0^r M_q(s, f') ds .$$

Hence an interchange of the order of integration shows that

$$\int_0^1 (1-r)^{\alpha-1} M_q(r, f) dr \leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_0^1 (1-s)^\alpha M_q(s, f') ds ,$$

which proves the lemma.

*Proof of Theorem 4.* Suppose first that  $\{\lambda_n\}$  satisfies (11). Given  $f(z) = \sum a_n z^n$  in  $B^p$ , we are to show that  $h(z) = \sum \lambda_n a_n z^n$  belongs to  $H^q$ . By (8), with  $\nu$  replaced by  $(\nu + 1)$ , we have

$$\rho^{\nu+1} |h^{(\nu+1)}(\rho z)| \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |f(\rho e^{it})| |g^{(\nu+1)}(ze^{-it})| dt .$$

Since  $q \geq 1$ , it follows from Jensen's inequality ([11], § 6.14) that

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^{\nu+1} M_q(r, h^{(\nu+1)}) &\leq M_1(\rho, f) M_q(r, g^{(\nu+1)}) \\ &\leq C(1-r)^{1/p-\nu-2} M_1(\rho, f) , \end{aligned}$$

where  $r = |z|$  and (11) has been used. Now set  $r = \rho$  and use the hypothesis  $f \in B^p$  to conclude that

$$\int_0^1 (1-r)^\nu M_q(r, h^{(\nu+1)}) dr < \infty .$$

But by successive applications of the lemma, this implies

$$\int_0^1 M_q(r, h') dr < \infty .$$

Thus, in view of the inequality (12), it follows that  $h \in H^q$ , which was to be shown.

Conversely, suppose  $\{\lambda_n\}$  is a multiplier of  $H^p$  into  $H^q$  for arbitrary  $q(0 < q \leq \infty)$ . Then by the closed graph theorem,

$$A: \sum a_n z^n \longrightarrow \sum \lambda_n a_n z^n$$

is a bounded operator from  $H^p$  to  $H^q$ . An argument similar to that used in the proof of Theorem 3 now leads to the estimate (11).

**COROLLARY.** *If  $0 < p < 1 \leq q \leq \infty$  and  $f \in B^p$ , then its fractional integral  $f_\alpha \in H^q$ , where  $\alpha = 1/p - 1/q$ . This is false if  $q < 1$ .*

This corollary can also be proved directly. Indeed, since ([2], Th. 5) the fractional integral of order  $(1/p - 1/s)$  of a  $B^p$  function is in  $B^s$  ( $0 < s < 1$ ), and since ([8], p. 415) the fractional integral of order  $(1 - 1/q)$  of an  $H^1$  function is in  $H^q(1 \leq q \leq \infty)$ , it suffices to show that  $f' \in B^{1/2}$  implies  $f \in H^1$ . But this is easy; it follows from (12) with  $q = 1$ . That the corollary is false for  $q < 1$  is a consequence of the fact ([2], Th. 5) that the fractional derivative of order  $(1/p - 1/q)$  of every  $B^q$  function is in  $B^p$ .

The converse is also false. That is, if  $f \in H^q$ , its fractional derivative of order  $(1/p - 1/q)$  need not be in  $B^p(0 < p < 1 \leq q \leq \infty)$ . As before, this reduces to showing that  $f \in H^1$  does not imply  $f' \in B^{1/2}$ . To see this, let  $f(z) = \sum c_k z^{n_k}$ , where  $\{n_k\}$  is lacunary,  $\{c_k\} \in \ell^2$ , and  $\{c_k\} \notin \ell^1$ . Then  $f \in H^2 \subset H^1$ , but  $f' \notin B^{1/2}$ , since it was shown in [4] (Th. 3, Corollary 2) that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} n_k^{1-1/p} |a_{n_k}| < \infty$$

whenever  $\sum a_n z^n \in B^p$  and  $\{n_k\}$  is a lacunary sequence.

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